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Modelling life cycles of inter-organizational collaborations in healthcare: a systematic review and best-fit framework synthesis

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Manuscript ID	JHOM-01-2022-0025.R2
Manuscript Type:	Original Article
Keywords:	Public management, healthcare, Partnering, Health care, collaboration

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

Search Strategy

HMIC Commentary search

1. buddying.mp.
2. (clinical adj1 network).mp. [mp=title, other title, abstract, heading words]
3. merger.mp.
4. acquisition.mp.
5. (joint adj1 management).mp. [mp=title, other title, abstract, heading words]
6. consolidation.mp.
7. (coordinating or co-ordinating or coordination or co-ordination).mp. [mp=title, other title, abstract, heading words]
8. (hospital adj1 chain\$).mp. [mp=title, other title, abstract, heading words]
9. federation.mp.
10. (joint adj1 working).mp. [mp=title, other title, abstract, heading words]
11. (partnership adj1 working).mp. [mp=title, other title, abstract, heading words]
12. alliance.mp.
13. (joint adj1 commissioning).mp. [mp=title, other title, abstract, heading words]
14. vanguard.mp.
15. exp Integration/
16. 1 or 2 or 3 or 4 or 5 or 6 or 7 or 8 or 9 or 10 or 11 or 12 or 13 or 14 or 15
17. health care/ or acute care/ or medical care/ or primary care/ or public sector/
18. 16 and 17
19. opinion*.ti.
20. (view or views).ti.
21. editorial.mp.
22. note.mp.
23. comment.mp.
24. letter.mp.
25. or/19-24
26. 18 and 25
27. limit 26 to yr="1990"

HMIC review, framework, theory, evaluation search

Search strategy

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- 4 acquisition.mp.
- 5 (joint adj1 management).mp. [mp=title, other title, abstract, heading words]
- 6 consolidation.mp.

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26 28 (case adj1 study).mp. [mp=title, other title, abstract, heading words]
27 29 theory.mp. [mp=title, other title, abstract, heading words]
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30 32 limit 31 to yr="1990 -Current"

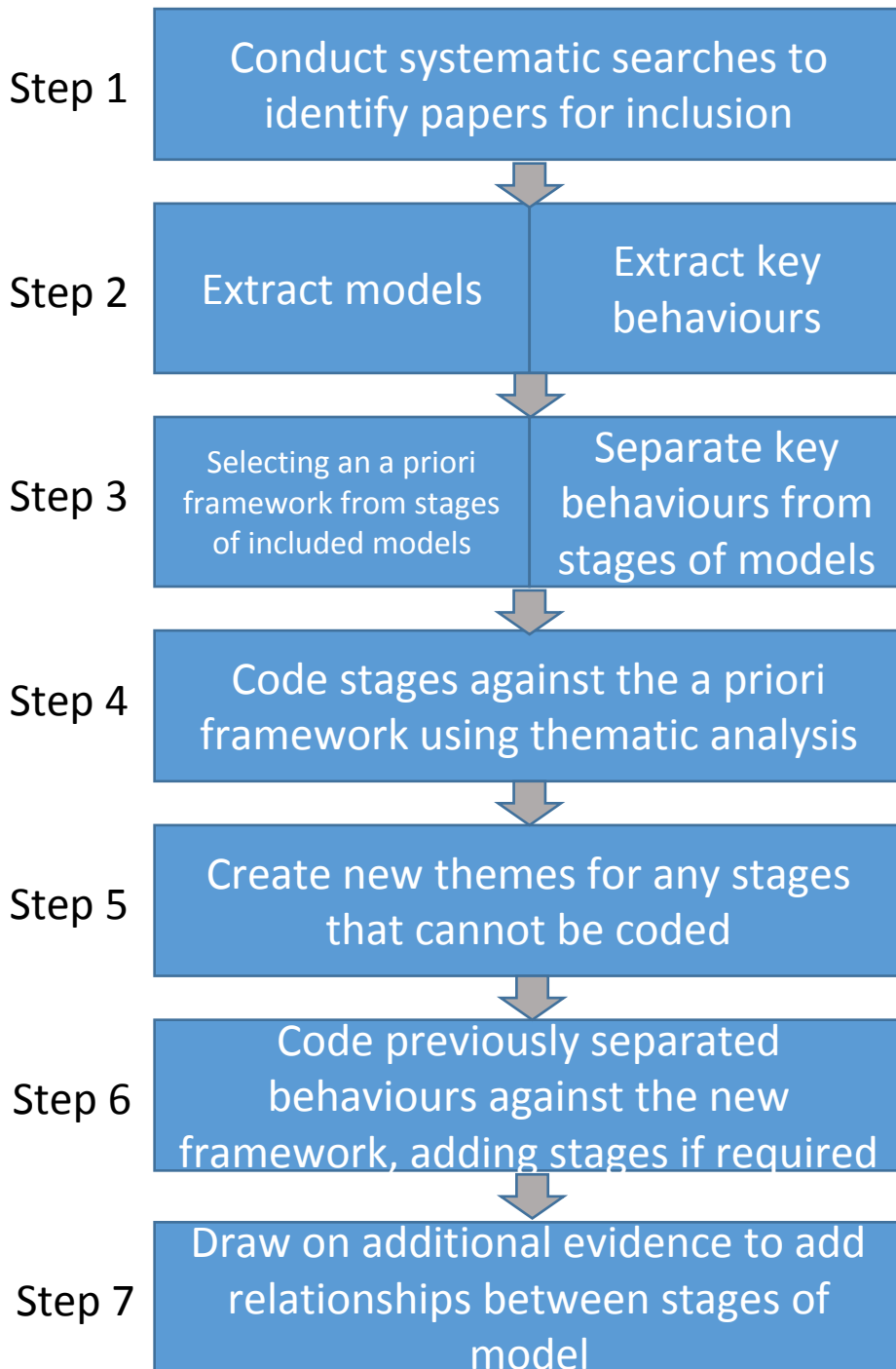
Medline and PsycINFO search strategy

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13 (joint adj1 commissioning).ti.
14 vanguard.mp.

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- 16 partnership.mp.
- 17 partnering.mp.
- 18 1 or 2 or 3 or 4 or 5 or 6 or 7 or 8 or 9 or 10 or 11 or 12 or 13 or 14 or 16 or 17
- 19 15 and 18
- 20 limit 19 to yr="1990 -Current"

Social policy and practice database search strategy

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- 6 alliance?.mp. [mp=abstract, title, publication type, heading word, accession number]
- 7 "partnership working".mp. [mp=abstract, title, publication type, heading word, accession number]
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- 17 intervention.mp. [mp=abstract, title, publication type, heading word, accession number]
- 18 model.mp. [mp=abstract, title, publication type, heading word, accession number]
- 19 review.mp. [mp=abstract, title, publication type, heading word, accession number]
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- 21 theory.mp. [mp=abstract, title, publication type, heading word, accession number]
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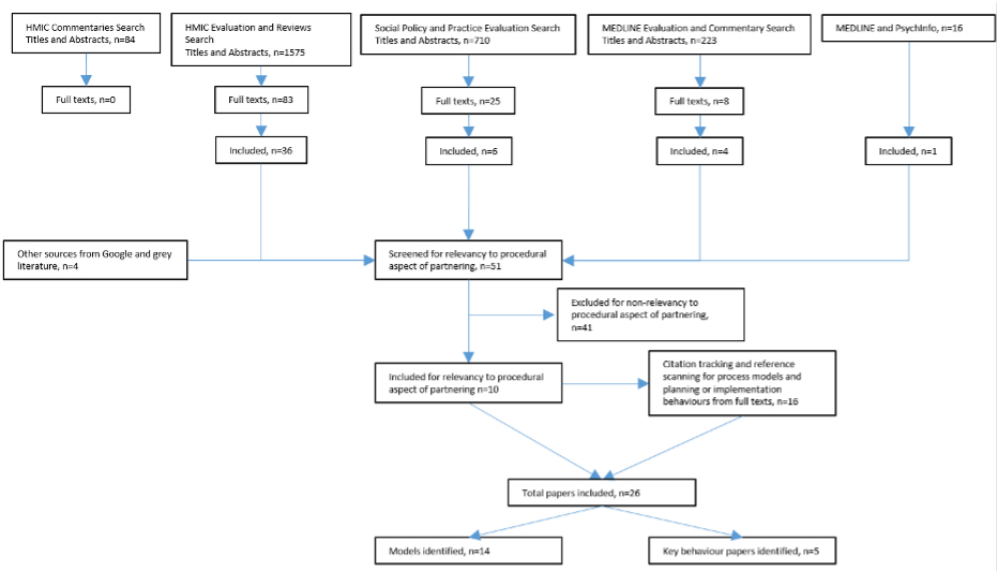


Figure 2. PRISMA diagram.

246x140mm (96 x 96 DPI)



Figure 3. Model by Childs and Dobbins (2003).

786x209mm (38 x 38 DPI)

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Recycling of learnings and structures

Procedural overlap



- Defining the problem
- Identifying resources
- Identifying stakeholders
- Considering solutions to problems i.e. collaborative forms

- Reaching out to potential collaborators
- Building trust
- Establishing respect and ground rules
- Building capacity to collaborate

- Forming an action plan
- Establishing required structure
- Setting targets and intended outcomes
- Contingency planning
- Formalising agreements

- Executing the action plan
- Forming required structures
- Managing conflict
- Managing ongoing collaboration
- Evaluating and refining action plans

- Continued delivery of the partnership characterised by ongoing review, communication, and strengthened commitment
- Longer-term aims of the partnership are actively achieved

OR

- Dissolution due to e.g. irreconcilable conflicts
- Completion of a partnership (i.e. merger is completed or budding arrangement achieves desired outcomes)

Mandated partnering may cause skipping of pre-Planning stages

Table 1. Partnership types.

Partnership type	Partnering processes
Merger	Where two or more organisations combine their resources to form a new organisation.
Acquisition	Where an organisation becomes subsumed by an acquiring organisation
Buddying	Where individuals or organisations with more experience help, mentor, advise or train others
Federation	Where several organisations come together to collaborate to deliver one or more type of service or back office provision.
Joint Venture	Where two or more organisations pool their sovereignty to create a new legal or contractual entity to manage a particular service
Integrated Care Organisation/System	An organisation that brings together some or all of the acute, community, primary care, social care and mental health services in a variety of forms
Service Level Chain	Where one organisation provides services for other providers through a contract, a service level agreement or a fee to use the policies and protocols of the first provider.

Table 2. Studies included as identified by systematic search.

Paper	Paper type	Type of partnership(s)	Relevance to analysis
Axelsson & Axelsson (2006)	Review	Collaborations and integrations in public health	Establishes stages of development of collaboration across organisations
Kendall et al (2012)	Systematic review	Community-based health partnerships	Presents multiple models of the process of collaborating based on Moyer <i>et al.</i> , (1999), Fawcett <i>et al.</i> , (1995), Sullivan et al, and Crisp, Swerissen and Duckett (2000)
What Works Scotland (2015)	Review	Partnerships across UK public services	Establishes partnerships as cyclical entities
Wildridge et al (2004)	Review	Partnership working	Identifies several models for different kinds of partnerships, based on Child, Faulkner and Tallman (2005), Gray (1989), the Joseph Rowntree Foundation (Wilson and Charlton, 1997), and ourpartnership.org.uk (no date).
Zuckerman et al (1995)	Review	Alliances and hospital federations in healthcare	Identifies several alliance models from Kanter (1989), and Forrest (1992); establishes 'life cycle' model (D'Aunno and Zuckerman, 1987)
Hudson et al (1999)	Review	Inter-agency collaboration in public sector	Identifies key elements important at various stages of process
Vindrola-Padros et al (2019)	Study protocol	Hospital group	Identifies key elements important at various stages of process

The King's Fund (2005)	Case study	Joint commissioning	Identifies key elements important at various stages of process
Murray et al (2018)	Qualitative study	Accountable Care Organisations (ACOs)	Establishes ACOs as cyclical entities
Lowndes and Skelcher (1998)	Case studies	Public service partnerships	Presents a model of partnership process
Mandell and Keast (2008)	Review	Networks	Presents evaluation of effectiveness at different stages of network development using model by Sydow (2004)

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Table 3. Included models and identified behaviours.

Models					
Author	Model type (sequential or cyclical)	Model stages	Model behaviours for partnership working	Methodology used to form model	Sector
Moyer et al. (1999)	Sequential	(1) the identification of common ground; (2) establishing the relevant stakeholders; (3) identifying a common project or goal; and (4) working in a multi-agency, multi-sectoral way, or both.	(1) Actors conducting tasks aimed at exploring and auditing existing collaborative attitudes, partnerships, leaders, resources, activities, and opportunities for collaboration. (2) The actors undertake tasks that engage stakeholders in the notion of collaboration through promotion, education and development of opportunities. (3) Development of shared perspectives and a common vision or foci across multiple stakeholders at all levels. (4) The actors support the engagement of stakeholders in collaborative activity and facilitate the sharing of early successes and rewards	Case study	Public health
Fawcett et al. (1995)	Cyclical	(1) Collaborative planning (2) Community action (3) Community change (4) Community capacity and outcomes	Enhancing experience and competence, enhancing structures (e.g., providing technical assistance, formal processes, and resources to form networks and linkages)	Literature review	Community health development

		(5) Adaptation, renewal and institutionalisation	Removing of social and environmental barriers and enhancing environmental supports		
Lowndes and Skelcher (1998)	Sequential	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Pre-partnership collaboration (2) Partnership creation and consolidation (3) Partnership programme delivery (4) Partnership termination or succession 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Informality, trust, and co-operation, willingness to work together (2) Negotiation and contest over membership, codifying balance of power, creation of formalised hierarchical structure. (3) Managing competition within partnership, distributing funds for programme implementation, managing conflicts. (4) Strategies to maintain partnership, letting partnership die, or keeping certain aspects but not others. 	Case studies	UK urban regeneration partnerships
Child, Faulkner, and Tallman (2005)	Sequential	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) The nature of co-operation (2) Establishing co-operation (3) Managing co-operation (4) Maturing relationship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Developing trust and motives (2) Selecting partners, deciding on partnership form, power and trust, negotiation, valuations of contributions (3) Management of culture, objectives (4) Organisational learning, separation and divorce 	Theoretical	Businesses in general
Childs and Dobbins (2003)	Sequential	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Starting the process (2) Achieving agreement (3) Creating a self-sustaining partnership 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Finding a champion, a vision, principle of a joint venture (2) Finding more champions in partner organisations, honest communication, goodwill and commitment, reaching mutual 	Theoretical	Academic partnership

			understanding, establishing trust, emphasising benefits (3) Establishing ownership and commitment at highest levels, establishing structures, demonstrating practical value		
Gray (1989)	Sequential	(1) Problem setting (2) Direction setting (3) Implementation	(1) Defining the problem, committing to collaboration, identifying stakeholders, establishing levels of participation, identifying resources (2) Establishing ground rules of openness and respect, setting agenda of what is to be done, organising process of collaboration, obtaining information (3) Obtaining agreement of constituents in organisations, external support, setting up required structures, monitoring activities and compliance	Theoretical	Businesses in general
Wilson and Charlton (1997)	Sequential	(1) Coming together due to recognised need (2) Process of dialogue (3) Establishing formal structure (4) Delivering action plan (5) Planning exit strategy where appropriate	(1) Building trust, overcoming differences, building capacity (2) Establishing common ground, agreeing a vision, identifying actions required (3) Setting targets, establishing management team (4) Maintaining partner involvement, evaluating and refining action plan (5) Exit planning	Case studies	Private, voluntary, and community sectors
ourpartnership.org.uk (2007)	Cyclical	(1) Connecting (2) Contracting	(1) Partners get to know each other and plan future activities	Theoretical	Public sector partnerships

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (3) Conflict (4) Collaborating (5) Closing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (2) Negotiating roles, rules, and funding (3) Managing inevitable conflict between partners (4) Keeping momentum going (5) Ending one or more partners' involvements 		
Kanter (1989)	Sequential	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Selection or courtship (2) Engagement (3) Setting up housekeeping (4) Learning to collaborate (5) Changing within 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Realistic self-appraisal and appraisal of partners (2) Developing basic agreement (3) Experience of difficulties in new relationship – cultural differences, lack of understanding, etc. (4) Building mechanisms to overcome barriers. (5) Internal changes required to sustain relationship 	Theoretical	Businesses in general
Forrest (1992)	Cyclical	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Prealliance (2) Agreement (3) Implementation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Appraisal and selection of appropriate partner, getting a close fit (2) Specifying terms and conditions of alliance, scope, objectives, resources, conflict resolution mechanisms, etc. (3) Open communication, ongoing review, strengthened mutual commitment 	Case studies, interviews, questionnaires	Businesses in general
D'Aunno and Zuckerman (1987)	Cyclical	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Emergence of a coalition (2) Transition to a federation (3) Maturity of federation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Organisation responds to threat in environment, finds organisation which shares values, define coalition processes, develop membership criteria. 	Theoretical	Organisational federations (hospitals)

		(4) Critical crossroads	(2) Motivation to achieve purposes of coalition, increased dependence on coalition for resources, forming management group, mechanisms for coordination. (3) Benefits obtained from investments to date, attain stated objectives, sustain member commitment. (4) Increased centralisation and dependence on federation motivates members to seek hierarchy or withdraw, manage decisions about future of federation.		
Tuckman and Jensen, (1977) applied by Axelsson and Axelsson, (2006)	Cyclical	(1) Forming (2) Storming (3) Norming (4) Performing (5) Adjourning (from Tuckman and Jensen (1977))	(1) Facilitating contacts and collaborations in team (2) Managing conflicts, finding common values and goals. (3) Build and sustain trust between members (4) Concentration of facilitating work of the team towards goal achievement	Literature review	Small-group development
Murray, D'Aunno, and Lewis (2018)	Cyclical	(1) Partnership formation (2) Growth (3) Rise of tension (4) Maturation or dissolution	Not mentioned	Case study	Management partners and healthcare organisations
Sydow (2004)	Sequential	(1) Network formation (2) Struggle for network stability	(1) Building relationships, trust, norms, commitment. (2) Setting foundation, establishing ties with outside stakeholders, develop	Case study	Financial services industry

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		(3) Network routinisation (4) Network extension	sponsors, developing skills for new working methods. (3) Routinisation of network co- operation, views and norms established and rules accepted. (4) Network is viable operation, links forged with other networks, network may begin to break apart.		
Key behaviours (not explicitly linked to stages)					
Author			Behaviours		
Vindrola-Padros et al. (2019)			(1) Implement evidence-based standard clinical processes (2) Standardise approach to non-clinical processes (3) Centralise non-clinical activity (4) Consolidate clinical support services across the group (5) Consolidate clinical services to drive quality and value (6) Invest in leadership capabilities and workforce development (7) Promote the better use of resources across the group (8) Effective performance management of members (9) Collaborate with local healthcare providers		
The King's Fund (2005)			(1) Pick winners early on that will give process credibility (2) Have product champion to provide leadership (3) A resource audit is essential at an early stage of the work (4) Clarity is needed from outset about financial resources committed to the process (5) Sufficient time is needed in the set up phase to ensure structures and priorities of the work are fully worked through		
Hudson et al. (1999)			(1) Expectations and constraints (2) Recognition of need to collaborate (3) Identification of a legitimate basis for collaboration (4) Assessment of collaborative capacity		

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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (5) Articulation of a clear sense of purpose (6) Building trust (7) Ensuring wide organisational ownership (8) Nurturing fragile relationships (9) Selection of an appropriate collaborative relationship (10) Selection of a co-ordination pathway
Sullivan, Barnes, and Matka (2006)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Consolidating (strengthening existing partnership work) (2) Clarifying roles and relations (3) Development of policies to facilitate partnership (4) Innovation strategies such as building momentum for change
Crisp, Swerissen, and Duckett (2000)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Changing policies or management to influence collaborative capacity (2) Provision of skills and attitudes to facilitate collaboration (3) Strengthening existing connections to foster partnership working (4) Fostering partnership working values and engagement

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Table 4. Definition of stages in the finalised composite model.

Stage	Definition
Contemplating	The organisation is actively thinking about problems it is facing, whether collaborating may be a solution to these problems, and who they could collaborate with.
Connecting	The organisation is reaching out to potential partners and establishing initial relationships, building trust and mutual respect, and building initial capacity for collaborating.
Planning	An action plan is being drawn up between two or more partners, required foundations for organisational structures (e.g. governance arrangements, conflict resolution mechanisms) are being established, aims and objectives for partnerships are being agreed, and legal frameworks are being drafted and signed.
Implementation	The action plan is being executed, the required collaborative structures are put into place, conflicts are being actively managed, action plans are being evaluated and refined as the intermediate outcomes of the partnership (i.e. those relating to the partnership itself) are being achieved.
Maintenance	The partnership moves from being actively managed, to becoming a part of the daily routine and almost 'second nature'. Relatively few conflicts are taking place, and the ultimate outcomes of the partnership are being achieved (i.e. improvements to delivery of services).
Dissolution	The partnership dissolves due to irreconcilable conflicts, or because the aims of the partnership are accomplished and the partnership is no longer required.

Table 5. Full final coding framework identifying stages and behaviours from included papers and how they were coded against our model.

Stages (our model)	Stages (other models)	Behaviours
Contemplating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The nature of co-operation (Child et al., 2005) • Problem setting (Gray, 1989) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Actors conducting tasks aimed at exploring and auditing existing collaborative attitudes, partner- ships, leaders, resources, activities, and opportunities for collaboration. (Moyer et al., 1999) • Defining the problem, committing to collaboration, identifying stakeholders, establishing levels of participation, identifying resources (Gray, 1989) • Pick winners early on that will give process credibility, Have product champion to provide leadership, A resource audit is essential at an early stage of the work, Clarity is needed from outset about financial resources committed to the process (The King’s Fund, 2005) • Expectations and constraints, , Recognition of need to collaborate, Identification of a legitimate basis for collaboration, Assessment of collaborative capacity (Hudson et al., 1999).
Connecting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The identification of common ground (Moyer et al., 1999) • Pre-partnership collaboration (Lowndes & Skelcher, 1998) • Starting the process (Childs & Dobbins, 2003) • Coming together due to recognised need, Process of dialogue (Wilson & Charlton, 1997) • Connecting (ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007) • Selection or courtship (Kanter, 1989) • Prealliance (Forrest, 1992) • Emergence of a coalition (D’Aunno & Zuckerman, 1987) • Forming (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The actors undertake tasks that engage stakeholders in the notion of collaboration through promotion, education and development of opportunities. (Moyer et al., 1999) • Informality, trust, and co-operation, willingness to work together (Lowndes & Skelcher, 1998) • Developing trust and motives (Child et al., 2005) • Selecting partners, deciding on partnership form, power and trust, negotiation, valuations of contributions (Child et al., 2005) • Finding a champion, a vision, principle of a joint venture (Childs & Dobbins, 2003) • Building trust, overcoming differences, building capacity (Wilson & Charlton, 1997) • Establishing common ground, agreeing a vision, identifying actions required (Wilson & Charlton, 1997) • Partners get to know each other and plan future activities (ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007) • Realistic self-appraisal and appraisal of partners (Kanter, 1989)

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Partnership formation (Murray et al., 2018) Network formation (Sydow, 2004) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Appraisal and selection of appropriate partner, getting a close fit (Forrest, 1992) Organisation responds to threat in environment, finds organisation which shares values, define coalition processes, develop membership criteria (D'Aunno & Zuckerman, 1987) Facilitating contacts and collaborations in team (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977) Building relationships, trust, norms, commitment. (Sydow, 2004) Articulation of a clear sense of purpose, Building trust, Ensuring wide organisational ownership, Nurturing fragile relationships (Hudson et al., 1999)
Planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establishing the relevant stakeholders, identifying a common project or goal (Moyer et al., 1999) Collaborative planning (Fawcett et al., 1995) Establishing co-operation (Child et al., 2005) Achieving agreement (Childs & Dobbins, 2003) Direction setting (Gray, 1989) Establishing formal structure (Wilson & Charlton, 1997) Contracting (ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007) Engagement; Setting up housekeeping (Kanter, 1989) Agreement (Forrest, 1992) Transition to a federation (D'Aunno & Zuckerman, 1987) Storming (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Development of shared perspectives and a common vision or foci across multiple stakeholders at all levels. (Moyer et al., 1999) Enhancing experience and competence, enhancing structures (e.g., providing technical assistance, formal processes, and resources to form networks and linkages), removing of social and environmental barriers and enhancing environmental supports (Fawcett et al., 1995) Negotiation and contest over membership, codifying balance of power, creation of formalised hierarchical structure. (Lowndes & Skelcher, 1998) Finding more champions in partner organisations, honest communication, goodwill and commitment, reaching mutual understanding, establishing trust, emphasising benefits (Childs & Dobbins, 2003). Establishing ground rules of openness and respect, setting agenda of what is to be done, organising process of collaboration, obtaining information (Gray, 1989). Setting targets, establishing management team (Wilson & Charlton, 1997). Negotiating roles, rules, and funding (ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007) Developing basic agreement (Kanter, 1989) Specifying terms and conditions of alliance, scope, objectives, resources, conflict resolution mechanisms, etc. (Forrest, 1992) Motivation to achieve purposes of coalition, increased dependence on coalition for resources, forming management group, mechanisms for coordination. (D'Aunno & Zuckerman, 1987) Managing conflicts, finding common values and goals. (Axelsson & Axelsson, 2006)

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting foundation, establishing ties with outside stakeholders, develop sponsors, developing skills for new working methods. (Sydow, 2004) • Invest in leadership capabilities and workforce development (Vindrola-Padros et al., 2019) • Sufficient time is needed in the set up phase to ensure structures and priorities of the work are fully worked through (The King's Fund, 2005) • Selection of an appropriate collaborative relationship, Selection of a co-ordination pathway (Hudson et al., 1999) • Obtaining agreement of constituents in organisations, external support, setting up required structures, monitoring activities and compliance (Gray, 1989) • Consolidating (strengthening existing partnership work), Clarifying roles and relations, Development of policies to facilitate partnership, Innovation strategies such as building momentum for change (Sullivan et al., 2006) • Changing policies or management to influence collaborative capacity, Provision of skills and attitudes to facilitate collaboration, Strengthening existing connections to foster partnership working, Fostering partnership working values and engagement (Crisp et al., 2000)
Implementing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community action; Community change; Community capacity and outcomes (Fawcett et al., 1995) • Partnership creation and consolidation; Partnership programme delivery (Lowndes & Skelcher, 1998) • Managing co-operation (Child et al., 2005) • Creating a self-sustaining partnership (Childs & Dobbins, 2003) • Implementation (Gray, 1989) • Delivering action plan (Wilson & Charlton, 1997) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The actors support the engagement of stake- holders in collaborative activity and facilitate the sharing of early successes and rewards (Moyer et al., 1999) • Managing competition within partnership, distributing funds for programme implementation, managing conflicts. (Lowndes & Skelcher, 1998) • Management of culture, objectives (Child et al., 2005) • Establishing ownership and commitment at highest levels, establishing structures, demonstrating practical value (Childs & Dobbins, 2003) • Maintaining partner involvement, evaluating and refining action plan (Wilson & Charlton, 1997) • Managing inevitable conflict between partners (ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007) • Experience of difficulties in new relationship – cultural differences, lack of understanding, etc.; Building mechanisms to overcome barriers. (Kanter, 1989) • Open communication, ongoing review, strengthened mutual commitment (Forrest, 1992). • Build and sustain trust between members (Axelsson & Axelsson, 2006)

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conflict; Collaborating (ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007) • Learning to collaborate; Changing within (Kanter, 1989) • Implementation (Forrest, 1992) • Norming (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977) • Growth; Rise of tension (Murray et al., 2018) • Struggle for network stability (Sydow, 2004) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implement evidence-based standard clinical processes; Standardise approach to non-clinical processes; Centralise non-clinical activity; Consolidate clinical support services across the group; Consolidate clinical services to drive quality and value; Effective performance management of members; Collaborate with local healthcare providers (Vindrola-Padros et al., 2019)
Maintenance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Working in a multi-agency, multi-sectoral way, or both. (Moyer et al., 1999) • Adaptation, renewal and institutionalisation (Fawcett et al., 1995) • Maturing relationship (Child et al., 2005) • Maturity of federation (D'Aunno & Zuckerman, 1987) • Performing (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977) • Maturation (Murray et al., 2018) • Network routinisation; Network extension (Sydow, 2004) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategies to maintain partnership (Lowndes & Skelcher, 1998) • Organisational learning (Child et al., 2005) • Keeping momentum going (ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007) • Internal changes required to sustain relationship (Kanter, 1989) • Benefits obtained from investments to date, attain stated objectives, sustain member commitment. (D'Aunno & Zuckerman, 1987) • Concentration of facilitating work of the team towards goal achievement (Axelsson & Axelsson, 2006) • Routinisation of network co-operation, views and norms established and rules accepted; Network is viable operation, links forged with other networks. (Sydow, 2004)
Dissolution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Partnership termination or succession (Lowndes & Skelcher, 1998) • Planning exit strategy where appropriate (Wilson & Charlton, 1997) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Letting partnership die, or keeping certain aspects but not others. (Lowndes & Skelcher, 1998) • Separation and divorce (Child et al., 2005) • Exit planning (Wilson & Charlton, 1997) • Ending one or more partners' involvements (ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007)

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	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Closing (ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007)• Critical crossroads (D’Aunno & Zuckerman, 1987)• Adjourning (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977)• Dissolution (Murray et al., 2018)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Increased centralisation and dependence on federation motivates members to seek hierarchy or withdraw, manage decisions about future of federation. (D’Aunno & Zuckerman, 1987)• Network may begin to break apart. (Sydow, 2004)
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3 1 Modelling life cycles of inter-organizational collaborations in healthcare: a systematic review
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5 2 and best-fit framework synthesis
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9 3 **Abstract**

10 4 Purpose

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13 5 Inter-organizational collaboration (IOC) across healthcare settings has been put forward as a
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15 6 solution to mounting financial and sustainability challenges. While ingredients for successful
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17 7 IOC have been explored, there remains limited understanding of the development of IOCs over
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20 8 time.
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23 9 Design/methodology/approach

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26 10 We systematically reviewed the literature to identify models applied to IOCs in healthcare
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28 11 across databases such as HMIC and MEDLINE, identifying 2763 titles and abstracts with 26
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30 12 final papers included. We then used a ‘best fit’ framework synthesis methodology to synthesize
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32 13 fourteen models of IOC in healthcare and the wider public sector to formulate an applied
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34 14 composite model describing the process through which collaborations change over time. This
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36 15 synthesis comprised extracting stages and behaviours from included models, selecting an a
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38 16 priori framework upon which to code these stages and behaviours, and then re-coding them to
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40 17 construct a new composite model.
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45 18 Findings

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48 19 Existing models often did not consider that organisations may undergo many IOCs in their
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50 20 lifetime, nor included ‘contemplation’ stages or those analogous to ‘dissolution’, which might
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52 21 negatively impact papers using such models. Our composite model utilizes a life-cycle design
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54 22 comprising five non-linear phases: Contemplating, Connecting, Planning, Implementation, and
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23 Maintenance or Dissolution, and incorporates dynamic elements from Complex Adaptive
24 Systems thinking to reflect the dynamic nature of collaborations.

25 Originality

26 This is the first purpose-built model of the life cycles of IOCs in healthcare. The model is
27 intended to inform implementers, evaluators, and researchers of IOCs alike.

28 **Keywords**

29 Public management, partnership, collaboration, health care, social psychology.

30 **Introduction**

31 Healthcare inter-organizational partnerships (or collaborations) constitute complex systems
32 which can form, perform, and dissolve over time for a variety of different reasons (Greenhalgh,
33 2008). They can be defined as “the process by which organizations with a stake in a problem
34 seek a mutually determined solution by pursuing objectives they could not achieve working
35 alone” (Jurie, 1998, p. 1188).

36 Significant economic pressures, as well as the continuing impact of the pandemic, have driven
37 providers towards considering these collaborative organizational forms. These range from
38 relatively informal buddying arrangements, to system wide networks or acquisitions (table 1)
39 (The Dalton Review, 2014; Miller and Millar, 2017; Hare, 2020). These collaborations can
40 have many differing drivers – some might be initiated to facilitate interorganizational working,
41 as part of an integrated care system, while others might be driven by a need to turnaround an
42 organization due to poor performance.

43 Although there have been previous attempts at making typologies of partnerships (Mandell and
44 Steelman, 2003), as well as reviews identifying which factors are key to the success of
45 healthcare collaborations, there remains a relative lack of understanding regarding the temporal
46 dimension of such endeavours (Dickinson and Glasby, 2010; Glasby, Dickinson and Miller,

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3 47 2011; Elston, 2013; Miller and Millar, 2017; Northern Ireland Audit Office, 2019; Aunger *et*
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5 48 *al.*, 2020). A selection of models in the literature have sought to identify the stages which
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7 49 collaborations in public service organisations can go through (Axelsson & Axelsson., 2006;
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9 50 Child & Faulkner., 1998; Wildridge *et al.*, 2004; Zuckerman *et al.*, 1995). Yet, these have
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11 51 tended to build on linear assumptions of collaboration, often depicting them as a sequential
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13 52 series of stages with little emphasis on complex systems logic or life cycle dynamics (Gray,
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15 53 1989; Kanter, 1989; Moyer *et al.*, 1999). For example, the model by Gray (1989) simply has
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17 54 three stages: (1) problem setting, (2) direction setting, and (3) implementation, and does not
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19 55 consider, for example, how many organisations may consider entering into an IOC multiple
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21 56 times, without committing. Underutilisation of complex systems theory in implementation
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23 57 science in health organisation and management has constrained understanding of evidence-
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25 58 based innovations in healthcare (Sarkies *et al.*, 2021).

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31 59 Such a viewpoint is echoed by organisation and management scholars who have paid particular
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33 60 attention to the organization life cycle (OLC) perspective. Developed between the 1960s and
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35 61 1990s, (Mosca, Gianecchini and Campagnolo, (2021) Mosca *et al* (2021) summarise how life
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37 62 cycle models have evoked organism metaphors of organizational development as an evolution
38
39 63 through a series of phases and events over time (Ven, 1992). Such life cycles have also tended
40
41 64 to be characterised by a linear progression through organizational activities and structures,
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43 65 reducing complexity to uniform and deterministic patterns (Quinn and Cameron, 1983;
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45 66 Stubbart and Smalley, 1999) (Quinn and Cameron 1983; Stubbart and Smalley 1999). Mosca
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47 67 *et al* (2021) call for a reframing of OLC to accommodate a greater diversity of organizational
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49 68 solutions and outcomes more reflective of the non-linearity that is characteristic of
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51 69 organizational life.
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4 71 A process view of organisations, which seeks to understand “how and why things emerge,
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6 72 develop, grow, or terminate over time”, further emphasises how a linear approach can be
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8 73 erroneous (Ven, 1992; Langley et al., 2013, p. 1; Graebner et al., 2014). (Ven, (1992) drew on
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10 74 a nonlinear process approach to critique prior understandings of process research, stating that
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12 75 use of a linear sequential model can become a ‘self-fulfilling prophecy’ because it assumes a
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14 76 rigid set of phases occurring one after another. Ven (1992) suggests that reconceptualising rigid
15
16 77 stages towards “conceptual tracks” or “categories of events” may be more useful, and
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18 78 highlights the importance of acknowledging that these can occur repeatedly or even out of
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20 79 order. Such a process approach has been used to explain complex phenomena such as the
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22 80 process of inter-organisational collaboration outside of healthcare to understand post-merger
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24 81 integration, for example (Langley et al., 2013). Essential to depicting a process is often use of
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26 82 visual diagrams which can be “crucial in describing and communicating dynamic process
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28 83 theorizations” (Langley et al., 2013, p. 8), however, diagrams may obfuscate some of the causal
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30 84 complexity which process approaches seek to explain. Striking a balance between a theory that
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32 85 is interpretable in a diagram, while also not underselling the complexity or conveying a sense
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34 86 of linearity, can be challenging (Langley et al., 2013)

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41 87 Another common issue in the healthcare and wider public sector literature is the inappropriate
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43 88 translation of models from other institutional fields, applied to inter-organizational
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45 89 collaborations ~~in healthcare and the wider public sector.~~ For example, Pugalis & Bentley
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47 90 (2013) –applied a model original design to understand a small group development model
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49 91 (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977) to explain why inter organizational partnerships may go on
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51 92 differing trajectories. Use of models outside of their intended purpose can fail to recognize the
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53 93 broader system complexities of IOC. This is indicative of a paucity of purpose-built models
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55 94 suitable for analysing these kinds of collaborations, and was one of the motivators for this
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59 95 present research.
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3 96 Many models promoted for application in healthcare settings originate from the private sector
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6 97 or outside healthcare altogether, and there has been limited discussion about their applicability
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8 98 or appropriateness of models adopted from outside of such other contexts (e.g. Wegner et al.
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10 99 2016; Jap and Anderson 2007). We argue that there is a need to consider public sector
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12 100 healthcare collaborations differently, based on their differing primary motivations and
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14 101 decision-making processes (Mandell and Steelman, 2003, p. 200; Nutt, 2005; Bullock, Stritch
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16 102 and Rainey, 2015). As Mandell and Steelman (2003) argue, *“collaboration through networks*
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18 103 *in the public sector involves disparate organizations working toward a common goal and not*
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20 104 *merely to enhance the performance of one among them”* (Mandell and Steelman, 2003, p. 201).
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25 105 This paper seeks to build a more contextually appropriate ‘composite model’ of inter-
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27 106 organizational collaborations in healthcare using a ‘best fit’ systematic framework synthesis
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29 107 methodology. A clearer, purpose-built model of how these arrangements evolve and are
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32 108 maintained over time has the potential to further inform current developments in healthcare to
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34 109 understand how partnerships in healthcare work, why, and whom they benefit. There is also a
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36 110 need to better understand the various models put forward about these different partnership types
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38 111 and what behaviours can optimise performance at different time points during development
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41 112 (Sullivan and Skelcher, 2003; Conteh, 2013, p. 517; Aunger *et al.*, 2020).

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44 113 To our knowledge, this is the first composite model which has been formed based on a robust
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46 114 systematic review and synthesis process of existing models of the stages (or cycles) of
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48 115 healthcare collaborations and underlying behaviours that may be common in different
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50 116 ‘categories of events’ (Ven, 1992). Drawing on the collaborative healthcare and wider public
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52 117 sector literature, we argue that our composite model makes a valuable contribution by placing
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54 118 a greater recognition of the complex systems nature of inter-organizational collaborations and
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56 119 by filling in the gaps present in many of the existing models used by others. Such analysis can
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3 120 help evaluators and practitioners identify what steps to take at each point to increase the
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6 121 likelihood of collaboration success.

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9 122 [Table 1 Location]

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12 123 The aim of this paper is to use a ‘best fit’ framework synthesis methodology (Carroll, Booth
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14 124 and Cooper, 2011) to (1) systematically identify and review the strengths and weaknesses of
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16 125 existing models of models applied to inter-organizational collaborations in healthcare, and (2)
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19 126 to create a composite model reflective of the inherent complexity of IOC, building upon the
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21 127 strengths and weaknesses of existing models developed for, or applied to, ~~such~~-inter-
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23 128 organisational collaborations in healthcare.

26 129 **Methodology**

28 130 *‘Best fit’ framework synthesis methodology*

29 131 This ‘best fit’ framework synthesis methodology was chosen for this study (Booth and Carroll,
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32 132 2015). Frequently used in improvement studies in healthcare (Han *et al.*, 2020; Kakemam *et*
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34 133 *al.*, 2020), this method was chosen for its flexible and rigorous approach to synthesizing
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36 134 existing frameworks (in this case, process models) with novel data, enabling key gaps in
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38 135 existing understanding to be covered with the formation of a new ‘meta-framework’ (termed
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41 136 here as a ‘composite model’). This new composite model would be purpose-built from many
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43 137 sources of evidence from the healthcare and wider public sector (Booth and Carroll, 2015). The
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45 138 ‘Best fit’ method for framework synthesis for improvement science (Carroll, Booth and
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48 139 Cooper, 2011; Carroll *et al.*, 2013; Booth and Carroll, 2015) involves seven systematic steps
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50 140 (figure 1). However, as the best fit methodology is not rigid and has a number of permutations
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52 141 for various intended objectives. Thus, we selected the ‘meta-framework’ strategy proposed by
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55 142 Booth and Carroll (2015), which uses an a priori framework as a base, against which stages
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57 143 and behaviours from other frameworks/models are coded, to build a novel framework/model.
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59 144 Coding was performed in NVivo 12 software.

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3 145 Given this approach, our method was as follows: (1) conduct a systematic search to identify
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5 146 models in the literature (2) extract models and key behaviours from identified studies, (3) select
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7 147 an a priori framework from stages of included models using thematic analysis and separating
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9 148 key behaviours from stages of models, (4) code stages from other models against the a priori
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11 149 framework, (5) create new themes for any stages that cannot be coded against the a priori
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13 150 framework, (6) code previously separated behaviours against the new framework, adding
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15 151 stages if required, and (7) draw on additional evidence to add relationships between stages in
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17 152 the model. This method differs from a traditional systematic review by adding a method for
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19 153 synthesizing theories and frameworks, rather than focusing on efficacy or findings of the
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21 154 included studies.
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27 155 [Figure 1 location]
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30 156 *Figure 1. Stages of methodology.*
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32 157 **Systematic search**

33 158 *Search*

34 159 Systematic searches were conducted around the areas of collaboration in a healthcare setting,
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36 160 encompassing a wide range of partnership types such as alliances, buddying, mergers,
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38 161 acquisitions, and hospital groups (table 1). Additionally, Google Scholar searches, citation
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40 162 tracking and reference scanning were used to identify wider public-sector literature. We
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42 163 primarily intended to locate models which had been applied to understanding inter-
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44 164 organisational collaborations in healthcare or the wider public sector.
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49 165 *Search strategy*

50 166 These searches were run between 20.02.20 and 04.03.20 on databases including Healthcare
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52 167 Management Information Consortium (HMIC), MEDLINE, Social Policy and Practice, and
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54 168 PsychINFO. These databases were chosen for their relevance to the healthcare sector in
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56 169 particular. Additionally, a more informal Google Scholar search was conducted on 11.03.20 to
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58 170 identify any grey literature or elements missed, as well as reference scanning and citation
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3 171 tracking. This search combined terms including “public sector”, “inter-organizational
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5 172 collaboration”, “life cycle”, and “model” or “framework”. We performed an updated Google
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8 173 Scholar search drawing on the same terms on 14.11.22, limited to the period since our previous
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10 174 search, and did not identify any novel models to add to the analysis. Please see Supplementary
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12 175 File 1 for the full systematic search terms and strategy for each database.

15 176 *Study selection*

16 177 Inclusion criteria were that the paper had to (1) clearly relate to collaborations between one or
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18 178 more organizations on either a structural or individual level and had to be (2) a case study,
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20 179 evaluation, opinion, or review. As such, papers outlining public-private partnerships would be
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22 180 included at this stage. To reach the final stage of inclusion, the paper had to be relevant to the
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24 181 procedural aspects of partnership by either (1) presenting a model developed for or explicitly
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26 182 applied to collaborations the public sector, or (2) relating to behaviours required for planning
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28 183 or implementing partnerships in the public sector. Exclusion criteria were (1) papers that relate
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30 184 to collaborations or partnerships between staff and patients rather than between organizations.
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32 185 Titles and abstracts were screened by one main reviewer (XX) with a subset of 10% of the total
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34 186 titles and abstracts screened by XY. Agreement between reviewers was 100%.

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37 187 Data extraction was carried out by one reviewer (XX) which involved combing the included
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39 188 papers for models of the stages which partnerships go through and the behaviours key to these
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41 189 stages. This information was then extracted into separate documents before being categorized
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43 190 and tabulated for relevance to the review. This search constitutes a sub-search within a larger
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45 191 realist synthesis.

51 192 *Risk of bias and quality appraisal*

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53 193 Studies were not assessed for quality as the studies included here did not largely have human
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55 194 participants, and we did not find it pertinent to the research question to exclude models or
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57 195 frameworks based on quality-related criteria (Carroll and Booth, 2015).
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196 **Results**

197 *Paper selection*

198 A total of 2763 titles and abstracts were screened, with the majority of titles and abstracts being
199 screened out at this stage for being unrelated to inter-organisational collaboration. This resulted
200 in 116 papers for full text screening (figure 2).. These papers were then screened for relevance
201 to inter-organisational partnerships in the public sector, which resulted in 51 papers remaining.
202 The majority of papers screened out at this stage were because they were partnerships within,
203 rather than between, organizations (e.g., between patients and workers). These 51 papers were
204 then further screened for relevancy to the procedural aspect of collaborating. This resulted in
205 ten papers included for this final analysis (figure 2), with 41 papers excluded for not
206 incorporating a model to understand the temporality of inter-organisational collaboration.
207 These ten papers which applied models to public sector partnerships were then searched for
208 citations of models (reference scanning) and other papers which may also apply models or
209 outline key behaviours important to planning or implementing partnerships in the public sector
210 (citation tracking). This process resulted in 16 further papers for inclusion, bringing the total
211 to 26 papers (table 2) (Tuckman and Jensen, 1977; D'Aunno and Zuckerman, 1987; Gray,
212 1989; Kanter, 1989; Forrest, 1992; Zuckerman, Kaluzny and Ricketts, 1995; Fawcett *et al.*,
213 1995; Wilson and Charlton, 1997; Lowndes and Skelcher, 1998; Moyer *et al.*, 1999; Crisp,
214 Swerissen and Duckett, 2000; Childs and Dobbins, 2003; Bazzoli *et al.*, 2004; Sydow, 2004;
215 Wildridge *et al.*, 2004; Child, Faulkner and Tallman, 2005; Axelsson and Axelsson, 2006;
216 Sullivan, Barnes and Matka, 2006; ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007; Lester, 2008; Mandell and
217 Keast, 2008; Glasby and Dickinson, 2009; Kendall *et al.*, 2012; What Works Scotland, 2015;
218 Adedoyin *et al.*, 2016; Murray, D'Aunno and Lewis, 2018).

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219 *[Figure 2 Location]*

220 *Figure 2. PRISMA diagram.*

Journal of Health Organization and Management

221 [Table 2 Location]

222 *Models and behaviours identified in the literature*

223 Fourteen complete models were found in the literature, in addition to five separate sets of
224 descriptions of behaviours key to the partnership lifecycle that were not explicitly linked by
225 authors to any particular stages (Tuckman and Jensen, 1977; D'Aunno and Zuckerman, 1987;
226 Gray, 1989; Kanter, 1989; Forrest, 1992; Fawcett *et al.*, 1995; Wilson and Charlton, 1997;
227 Lowndes and Skelcher, 1998; Moyer *et al.*, 1999; Childs and Dobbins, 2003; Sydow, 2004;
228 Child, Faulkner and Tallman, 2005; ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007; Murray, D'Aunno and Lewis,
229 2018). Some of the 26 included papers overlapped in terms of models used, which is why these
230 resulted in identification of only 14 models. The models can be summarized as either sequential
231 (present as a series of linear stages) or cyclical (either flexible in stages or incorporating loops
232 back to the beginning) in design (table 3). Descriptions of key procedural behaviours were
233 identified in the literature where overlap was present with other papers. For example, Hudson
234 *et al.* (1999, p. 256), in their review of public sector collaborations, posit '*recognition of the*
235 *need to collaborate*' as very important, as well as '*identification of a legitimate basis for*
236 *collaboration*', but have not mentioned when in the process this should occur. However,
237 Hudson *et al.* (1999) also mention building trust as a key element, which Child, Faulkner and
238 Tallman (2005) mention as key elements in stages 1 ('the nature of co-operation') and 2
239 ('establishing co-operation'). As such, certain behaviours are mentioned without the context of
240 a stage in certain papers but are mentioned in the context of a stage in another, allowing for a
241 greater understanding to be built. Table 3 outlines the key elements of the fourteen models
242 identified in the literature.

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243 [Table 3 Location]



244 *Selecting an a priori framework*

245 In line with best fit framework synthesis methodology, the thematic analysis of the models
246 began with opting to use the simplest model as an a priori framework, to act as a suitable
247 skeleton upon which to build. As such, the three-stage structure from Childs and Dobbins
248 (2003) was selected. This basic model provided the understanding that something happens
249 before a collaboration, followed by the process of putting it into action, and finally a later stage
250 that involves ongoing collaboration (figure 3).

251 [Figure 3 Location]

252 *Figure 3. Model by Childs and Dobbins (2003).*

253 *Coding against the a priori framework*

254 As coding of other models onto this framework began, these 'core' stages quickly become
255 distinct stages common to many included models and were labelled as Planning,
256 Implementation, and Maintenance stages. Stages synonymous with Planning were found to be
257 present in thirteen of the models, and all of them included stages coded as Implementation.
258 Some models had multiple stages coded to fall within what we understood as Implementation,
259 such as ourpartnership.org.uk's model, in which both 'conflict' and 'collaborating' was coded
260 to Implementation. Likewise, for Kanter's (1989) model, originating in the private sector but
261 applied to the public sector by Zuckerman et al. (1995), both 'Learning to collaborate' and
262 'Changing within' was coded to Implementation, although 'learning to collaborate' may also
263 overlap somewhat with Planning. Kanter's (1989) model also ends with 'changing within' and
264 does not include any maintenance phase. Seven models do include a phase in which the partners
265 are collaborating more smoothly than during 'Implementation', in which it becomes almost
266 second-nature to do so (e.g. Childs & Dobbins (2003)) – e.g. 'creating a self-sustaining
267 partnership', or Child, Faulkner & Tallman (2005), 'maturing relationship'. This is what served
268 as foundational evidence for the Maintenance stage, which was included in some form in seven
269 models.

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2
3 270 However, it became clear when coding that there may also be stages that occur prior to the
4
5 271 onset of collaboration. Two models referred to 'the nature of co-operation' (Child, Faulkner
6
7 272 and Tallman, 2005) and 'Problem-setting' (Gray, 1989), which establish that partnerships
8
9 273 require a stimulus in order for organizations and actors to begin exploring collaboration as a
10
11 274 solution to a problem. A further distinct stage also became clear - and that was the concept of
12
13 275 'establishing the relevant stakeholders' (Moyer *et al.*, 1999), 'pre-partnership collaboration'
14
15 276 (Lowndes and Skelcher, 1998) and 'selection or courtship' (Kanter, 1989). This stage, in some
16
17 277 models, was conflated with another stage, but was distinct in others. However, making this
18
19 278 distinct from Planning, this stage does not involve setting up structures required for
20
21 279 collaborating, but rather is focused on developing inter-personal relationships and identifying
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23 280 the right people to work with. Stages analogous to this process - which here we termed
24
25 281 'Connecting', were present in eleven models.

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31 282 What happens after collaborations are established is also very important to the life cycle of
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33 283 organisations. Although some models do not refer to what may happen, seven included an
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35 284 understanding that collaborations may come to a conclusion or otherwise morph into another
36
37 285 form. For example, Tuckman and Jensen (1977) refer to 'adjourning' from a partnership,
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39 286 D'Aunno and Zuckerman (1987) refer to a 'critical crossroads' and Lowndes and Skelcher
40
41 287 (1998) to 'partnership termination or succession'. As such, in addition to Maintenance of the
42
43 288 collaboration, we included Dissolution as an element that can also be an outcome of a
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45 289 collaborative arrangement.

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51 290 As such, in our 'a priori' model, we have named the stages as follows: Contemplating,
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53 291 Connecting, Planning, Implementation, and Maintenance or Dissolution phases. While these
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55 292 stages may have some overlap, we believe them to be analytically distinct (table 4). The
56
57 293 behaviours which characterize these stages will be explained in further detail in the following
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59 294 section, and additional complexity incorporated into the section thereafter.

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3 295 [Table 4 Location]
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6 296 *Coding behaviours against the a priori framework*
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8 297 It is our understanding that a stage in a model describes a set of activities which is usually
9
10 298 performed in a distinct period of time. As such, in this second stage, behaviours were decoupled
11
12 299 from their original models and re-coded against the a priori framework. This meant there were
13
14 300 five additional sets of behaviours resulting in 18 total sets (and sources) of behavioural
15
16 301 information (table 3). Each behaviour was coded into only one phase. However, we did find
17
18 302 substantial information about how frequently existing models mention various behaviours
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21 303 which map onto this novel composite model.
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24 304 All included 'behavioural sets' were found to include behaviours relevant to Planning and
25
26 305 Implementing partnerships. The Planning phase included behaviours such as "setting targets,
27
28 306 establishing management teams" (Wilson and Charlton, 1997), "fostering partnership working
29
30 307 values and engagement" (Crisp, Swerissen and Duckett, 2000), and "developing basic
31
32 308 agreement" (Kanter, 1989). The identified behaviours were summarized in the composite
33
34 309 model as "forming an action plan", "establishing required structure", and "formalizing
35
36 310 agreements" (figure 5). Behaviours analogous to the Connecting stage had less representation
37
38 311 in the literature, with behaviours coded to it from thirteen (72.3%) of the identified behaviour
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41 312 sets. Connecting differed from Planning by being keenly related to interpersonal processes, and
42
43 313 for revolving around the initial processes of envisioning the relationship by and between actors.
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45 314 For example, Lowndes and Skelcher (1998) put forward "informality, trust and co-operation,
46
47 315 willingness to work together", and ourpartnership.org.uk (2007) establish that, in this stage,
48
49 316 "partners get to know each other and plan future activities", and undergo "realistic self-
50
51 317 appraisal and appraisal of partners" (Kanter, 1989). Additionally, according to Hudson et al
52
53 318 (1999), the beginnings of "wide organizational ownership" can be sowed at this stage. These
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55 319 have been summarized in our composite model as "reaching out to potential collaborators",
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320 “building trust”, “establishing respect and ground rules”, and “building capacity to
321 collaborate”.

322 Implementation included behaviours such as “managing inevitable conflict between partners”
323 (ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007), “experience of difficulties in new relationship” (Kanter, 1989)
324 and “evaluating and refining action plan” (Wilson and Charlton, 1997), and is characterized by
325 the beginning and middle phases of putting the collaboration into action, undergoing problem
326 solving as conflicts arise. The composite model integrates these, and others not mentioned here
327 as “executing the action plan”, “forming required structures”, “managing conflict”, “managing
328 ongoing collaboration”, and “evaluating and refining action plans”. This moves on to
329 maintenance, in which behaviours for the maintenance phase were present in eight of the
330 included behavioural sets. Behaviours in the Maintenance phase are distinct from those in
331 Implementation; as while implementation is characterized by “managing conflicts, managing
332 competition within the partnership” (Lowndes and Skelcher, 1998), “building mechanisms to
333 overcome barriers” (Kanter, 1989), and “sustaining trust between members” (Tuckman and
334 Jensen, 1977; Axelsson and Axelsson, 2006); Maintenance, rather, is characterized by a
335 relative lack of conflict, reaping benefits, and looking outwards, and is a stage that may not be
336 reached by all partnerships. It is the stage in which the ultimate outcomes of partnerships are
337 most likely to be achieved, as the focus moves from the functioning of the partnership to the
338 achievement of goals. For example, authors propose “strategies to maintain partnership”
339 (Lowndes and Skelcher, 1998), “internal changes required to sustain relationship” (Kanter,
340 1989), and “routinization of network co-operation” (Sydow, 2004). These have been
341 summarized in our model as “continued delivery of the partnership”, and “longer-term aims of
342 the partnership are actively achieved”.

343 Just as fewer models mentioned the Contemplation aspect of collaborating, our thematic
344 analysis identified that only four of the behaviour sets included incorporated behaviours

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2
3 345 analogous to ‘thinking about’ collaborating before it actually begins (e.g. Child, Faulkner, and
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5 346 Tallman 2005; Gray 1989). For example, the paper by Hudson et al (1999) puts forward
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7 347 behaviours such as “recognizing the need to collaborate”, and “identification of a legitimate
8
9 348 basis for collaboration”. These and others have been integrated into the model as “defining the
10
11 349 problem”, “identifying resources”, “identifying stakeholders”, “considering solutions to
12
13 350 problems, i.e., collaborative forms”. Likewise, Dissolution-type behaviours such as “letting
14
15 351 partnership die, or keeping certain aspects but not others” (Lowndes and Skelcher, 1998) and
16
17 352 “ending one or more partners’ involvements” (ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007) were only present
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19 353 in five behavioural sets. These were summarized in our composite model as either dissolution
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21 354 due to irreconcilable conflicts, or due to completion of the aims of the collaboration. As
22
23 355 Contemplation and Dissolution stages are more key to understanding the life cycle an
24
25 356 organization goes through when considering collaboration, it may be simply that many of these
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27 357 papers (and thus models) were not seeking to identify what happens before and after
28
29 358 collaborations are occurring. However, in pragmatic terms, a collaboration generally only
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31 359 arises as a result of a problem that requires collaboration to solve, and as such, adopting a life-
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33 360 cycle approach requires the inclusion of these stages.

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41 361 Upon recoding the behaviours to the stages of the model, all the behaviours were found to fit
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43 362 into our developing framework without requiring revision to the stages themselves. This
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45 363 suggested that our formulation of stages was sufficient for a good fit of existing understandings
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47 364 of collaborative processes in the literature. Table 5 depicts the full set of behaviours and stages
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49 365 of the included models and behavioural sets as coded against the final model. As can be seen,
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51 366 Contemplating and Dissolution were most unrepresented by pre-existing models. Some
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53 367 behaviours that are analytically distinct to each stage are mentioned in figure 4.
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368 *Adding relationships and pragmatic complex-systems thinking to the model*

369 We argue that for the purposes of this model it is more pragmatic to consider the organizations
370 involved as the units of analysis, rather than a singular collaboration. This is because healthcare
371 and other public sector organizations may go through multiple collaborative arrangements
372 throughout their lifetime, or be involved in several at once, and a prior collaborative
373 arrangement may lead to consequences for a future one (Rees, Mullins and Boviard, 2012;
374 Aunger, Millar, Rafferty, *et al.*, 2022). To this end, we incorporated a cyclical element into the
375 model, which links the end of the model back to the beginning. This is because, as others in
376 the literature have suggested, any learnings gained from prior collaborations will recycle
377 themselves into aiding or abetting any similar endeavours in the future (Wildridge *et al.*, 2004;
378 Cameron, Lart and Bostock, 2014).

379 Such processes lend themselves to other evidence in the literature, that of collaboration ‘micro-
380 cycles’. One such example is the concept of trust between partners, whereby trust between
381 workforces is reinforced over time as the collaboration yields results in a reciprocal and
382 recursive manner, or when information is shared between partners (Lester, 2008; What Works
383 Scotland, 2015). As such, we have conceptualized movement between the Contemplating,
384 Connecting, and Planning stages as being cyclical, to account for aspects such as trust and
385 respect which may be self-reinforcing in nature, and to indicate potential overlap between
386 stages in terms of which organizational behaviours may be taking place. Included literature
387 also suggests that it is likely that many organizations may seek to collaborate multiple times
388 without finding the right partner, thus, they move from Contemplating to Connecting and back
389 again without gaining much traction to go any further (Hudson *et al.*, 1999). However, based
390 on included studies, it is much less likely that a collaboration will move from Maintenance
391 back to Planning (D’Aunno and Zuckerman, 1987; Murray, D’Aunno and Lewis, 2018).

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3 392 Given the already significant number of interrelated contextual elements and actors at play
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6 393 within organizations, inter-organizational collaborations constitute even greater complex
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8 394 adaptive systems for which no model can truly hope to capture every degree of variance
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10 395 (Braithwaite *et al.*, 2018; Salignac *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, we were keenly aware that a typical
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12 396 sequential model has little hope of capturing the reality of collaboration processes. By
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14 397 presenting a cyclical model with further recursive elements, we hope that the model may better
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16 398 capture the variability inherent to the reality of collaboration, as feedback loops can emerge in
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18 399 the system at multiple times, damping or enhancing outputs (Lester, 2008; Braithwaite *et al.*,
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20 400 2018). The variability we intend for the model can also be situated within a contemporary
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22 401 process understanding, wherein our model should be interpreted within a ‘weak’ (change
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24 402 occurs in phases) process view (Langley, 2007; Sandberg, Loacker and Alvesson, 2015). As
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26 403 such, the ‘stages’ in our model should be interpreted as phases or times during which certain
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28 404 behaviours occur *more frequently* than others, and not be interpreted as stating that behaviours
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30 405 can *only* occur in those stages (Langley *et al.*, 2013).
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406 *[Figure 4 Location]*

407 *Figure 4. Finalised composite model.*

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3 408 Some collaborations such as mergers may have ‘expiry dates’ from the outset, and in the case
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6 409 of a merger or acquisition, become a singular unit at the end of the lifecycle, forming a new
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8 410 entity - defined here as a successful end to a collaboration. In these cases, the outcome
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10 411 (formulation of a new entity) may technically be Dissolution of a collaboration, rather than
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12 412 Maintenance of one. Dissolution may also occur unintentionally due to failure in ability to work
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14 413 together as intended (which could be caused by a myriad of factors). We argue that these two
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16 414 main outcome states are reflective of the two major options facing most collaborative forms
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18 415 identified by included models (D’Aunno and Zuckerman, 1987; Lowndes and Skelcher, 1998;
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20 416 Wildridge *et al.*, 2004; Child, Faulkner and Tallman, 2005; ourpartnership.org.uk, 2007). No
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24 417 other major ‘end-states’ were identified in the literature.

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27 418 We are also aware that some collaborations may be mandated by governmental organizations,
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29 419 which could cause many behaviours key to the Contemplating and Connecting phase, such as
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31 420 building trust and respect, to be skipped, leading to negative outcomes further along in the
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33 421 process (figure 5) (Connell and Mannion, 2006; Miller and Millar, 2017; Aunger *et al.*, 2021;
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35 422 Aunger, Millar and Greenhalgh, 2021). As such, we have added the possibility of entering
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37 423 straight into the Implementation phase, or into a rudimentary Planning phase, as part of the
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39 424 model (figure 5). To account for these pragmatic considerations, the model must be viewed as
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41 425 flexible, with it being possible for organizations to enter and exit at any stage from
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43 426 Contemplating to Implementation, with the caveat that it may not be optimal from a
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45 427 relationship-building perspective to do so (Dickinson and Glasby, 2010).

428 *Certain practices may be key at differing stages*

429 The model and the literature included demonstrates that particular behaviours and
430
431 organizational processes are intrinsic to various stages of the collaborative lifecycle, and it may
432
433 be that detrimental effects could result if these are not properly performed (Dickinson and
434
435 Glasby, 2010). One could foresee a scenario, such as in a mandated situation outlined above,

433 in which stages such as Connecting or Planning are almost entirely skipped or improperly
434 conducted, resulting in a lack of trust and respect between partners, unclear objectives,
435 improper governance arrangements, and a lack of proper resource and capacity allocated to
436 achieving the collaboration (Dickinson and Glasby, 2010). As such, it is key to implement
437 proper Planning and Connecting phases to ensure the logistical and workforce-related elements
438 of the collaboration are implemented properly later. This life-cycle model has been used by the
439 research team to inform a realist synthesis of healthcare collaborations as a framework for
440 understanding *when* various contextual factors affect the process of collaborating (Aunger *et*
441 *al.*, 2021; Aunger, Millar and Greenhalgh, 2021; Aunger, Millar, Greenhalgh, *et al.*, 2022).

442

443 [Table 5 Location]

444 **Discussion**

445 While attempts have been made to model how inter-organizational collaborations in healthcare
446 and the wider public sector evolve over time, most existing models are overly simplistic and
447 predominantly linear (Thistlethwaite, 2008; Perkins, 2011; Aldridge, Mulla and Turner, 2016;
448 NHS Improvement, 2016, 2017; Miller and Millar, 2017; Northern Ireland Audit Office, 2019)
449 and did not draw on a modern process approach (Langley *et al.*, 2013). Additionally, ~~they~~
450 included models often used the collaboration as the unit of analysis rather than the organization.
451 ~~, however, we argue this~~ This, we argue, may be erroneous, considering that we found through
452 our work that many healthcare organisations are involved in multiple concurrent collaborations
453 at any one time, meaning that learnings from one ongoing collaboration can bleed into another
454 (Aunger, Millar, Greenhalgh, *et al.*, 2022; Aunger, Millar, Rafferty, *et al.*, 2022). Additionally,
455 by reviewing existing models we found that many existing models most frequently neglected
456 to include a contemplative stage – which we would argue is essential to defining the nature of
457 the required collaboration in the minds of key actors. Indeed, many organisations are

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3 458 continually contemplating some form of collaboration but do not progress beyond this stage.

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5 459 This has led to use of overly reductive models in the applied collaboration literature which

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7 460 could subsequently negatively impact any analyses relying on their accuracy.

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10 461 As an applied example of how this novel composite model could improve an analysis, we can

11
12 462 look to The Northern Ireland Audit Office (2019). In their review and guide to public sector

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14 463 partnership working, intended to help others implement such partnerships, they applied the

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16 464 'forming, storming, norming' etc. model by Tuckman and Jensen (1977) to characterize the

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18 465 lifecycle of partnerships. However, the model by Tuckman and Jensen (1977) is sequential and

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20 466 not purpose-built for the public sector, nor for inter-organizational partnership working, and,

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22 467 rather, is focused on team building in smaller groups within an organization. As such, it is

23
24 468 missing elements that we would argue are key to the understanding of the partnership life cycle,

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26 469 such as a contemplation-like stage. We would argue that our novel composite model would

27
28 470 provide greater evaluative applicability to such a review of collaborations in the public sector,

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30 471 as it incorporates these oft-missed elements such as Contemplating, is purpose-built upon

31
32 472 multiple sources of evidence, acknowledges that organisations can move from Planning back

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34 473 to Contemplating in many cases if suitable partners are not identified, and incorporates a life-

35
36 474 cycle element that is more applicable to organizations (as complex adaptive systems) as a unit

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38 475 of analysis. This novel composite model also covers some of the gaps inherent to models

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40 476 included in this synthesis.

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42 477 As further example, we would argue that use of some of the included models on their own,

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44 478 such as that by Forrest (1992), could be insufficiently informative by missing out key elements

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46 479 - such as the process of Connecting. Likewise, others, such as Wilson and Charlton (1997),

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48 480 while incorporating most of the elements key to this model, miss out entire stages like

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50 481 Contemplating, as well as the concept of recycling knowledge for use in further collaborations.

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52 482 Missing such stages and behaviours may cause crucial attitudinal or environmental factors to

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3 483 be absent when analysing the level of work required to implement a collaboration, or when
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5 484 understanding why a collaboration was successful or not.
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9 485 As discussed earlier, the intention for this model was to encompass a variety of collaboration
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11 486 types. One more complex form of collaboration, typical of a very high degree of integration, is
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13 487 a merger, the process of which has been frequently modelled in the merger and acquisition
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15 488 literature. In the absence of purpose-build models for inter-organisational collaboration in
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17 489 healthcare, NHS Improvement (2017) drew on a sequential model from the private sector by
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19 490 Davis (2012) to depict the typical process of mergers in the NHS. The use of a model from the
20
21 491 private sector may be appropriate here, as the merger is an example of a ‘collaboration’ that
22
23 492 may be relatively similar between both the private and public sector (Field and Peck, 2003),
24
25 493 likely due to its high degree of formalization and integration (Aunger *et al.*, 2020). The model
26
27 494 by Davis (2012) starts at ‘search and target’, moving to ‘due diligence’, ‘negotiation and deal
28
29 495 structure’ in parallel with ‘100-day planning exercise’ and ‘day 1 integration plan’, to
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31 496 ‘integration’, ‘learn’, and ‘operate new business’. We would suggest that these phases map
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33 497 well onto the stages present in our novel model due to the overlap in key behaviours. For
34
35 498 example, Contemplating and Connecting incorporates ‘searching for collaborators’, ‘due
36
37 499 diligence’ is an aspect of Planning, and ‘negotiation and deal structure’ come into Connecting
38
39 500 and Planning respectively. Likewise, ‘learning’ is incorporated as the cyclical element through
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41 501 which learnings are recycled from collaboration to collaboration. ‘operate new business’ could
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43 502 be considered Dissolution once all active merger activities are concluded.
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51 503 Included sources seeking to understand IOCs in healthcare did not draw on contemporary
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53 504 process views or models (Berends and Sydow, 2019) which may suggest a disconnect between
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55 505 wider management and organisation studies (MOS) literature and the healthcare space, even
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57 506 though the MOS literature may contain more up-to-date and better-validated models for
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59 507 understanding IOC (Berends and Sydow, 2019). One example model, published recently,
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3 508 sought to understand collaboration in circular oriented innovation and identified a number of
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6 509 process phases including “identification of need and articulation of intent to collaborate”,
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8 510 “identifying and selecting partners”, “aligning partners on a shared purpose”, “defining
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10 511 structural and procedural governance mechanisms”, “defining a value capture model”, and
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12 512 “employing dynamic aspects of collaboration within design and implementation” (Brown *et*
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14 513 *al.*, 2021). These phases are broadly similar to those outlined in our composite model.
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18 514 As mentioned earlier, while life stages are similar between public and private sector
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20 515 organizations, the behaviours, underlying drives, and contextual factors affecting them at each
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22 516 stage (which we have not looked at here) are likely to be different (Mandell and Steelman,
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24 517 2003). For example, public sector healthcare organizations that wish to collaborate are typically
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26 518 more beholden to the desires of regulators that could potentially force organizations to work
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28 519 together, and have differing rules regarding competitiveness and antitrust, providing
29
30 520 implications for collaboration from the outset (Barringer and Harrison, 2000). Additionally,
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32 521 organizations involved may have more incentive to collaborate due to the core drive of serving
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34 522 the public good rather than the profit motives inherent to the private sector (Mandell and
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36 523 Steelman, 2003).
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41 524 Due to the use of the robust best fit framework synthesis methodology to draw together
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43 525 commonalities and differences in existing models, the novel composite model provides a
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45 526 refined framework of understanding for practitioners working in healthcare and wider public
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47 527 sector seeking to enter a collaborative arrangement or collaboration with other organizations.
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49 528 Likewise, it provides a key resource for practitioners and evaluators of such programs across a
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51 529 range of collaboration types, such as buddying, mergers, acquisitions, chains, federations, and
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53 530 joint ventures (Aunger *et al.*, 2020, 2021).
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531 *Limitations*

532 Although broad, the search strategy in this paper may have not identified every process model
533 of collaboration in the public sector that is present in the literature and as such that may have
534 undermined the validity of the model to some cases of collaboration. In particular, our
535 systematic literature searches focused particularly on the healthcare sector, as this project is
536 linked to a realist synthesis investigating how and why inter-organizational collaborations in
537 healthcare in the UK work. Since we were including only models applied in the healthcare
538 setting. As such, we did not include private sector or wider management literature in the search,
539 as it would have increased the number of records beyond what was manageable for the study
540 team. Additionally, we may not have included models from wider MOS literature if they were
541 not applied within the healthcare setting. However, we successfully gathered wider public
542 sector research with-by drawing on citation tracking, reference scanning, and Google Scholar
543 searching. We also Since we included models that were both *applied to* or *made explicitly for*
544 the public sector. As such, we assumed that authors who used models from the private sector
545 and were applying them to the public sector were doing so because these models were cross-
546 compatible. This, which increased the number of models we were able to include and better-
547 reflected the-ensured we reflected the reality of models used in analyses in the literature. It is
548 important to note that we included papers where the models were applied and as such our
549 literature sample was application-led. Of the final literature included, 17 out of 26 papers were
550 from the wider public sector, 9 were related to healthcare only, and 10 out of 14 models used
551 in the synthesis were designed for wider public sector use. As such, we are confident we
552 included all relevant models applied to model collaborations in public healthcare systems.

553 While the adoption of the best fit methodology allowed for a more systematic approach to the
554 process, the coding of behaviours relied on a subjective human methodology and as such it
555 may have been possible for researcher bias to have unintentionally coloured the results.

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3 556 Likewise, there may have been differences with how we interpreted the behaviours versus how
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5 557 the original authors intended them.
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8 558 There is also substantial critique of the collaboration and integrated care literature, arguing that
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10 559 it is often too theoretical in nature and does not delve sufficiently into developing practical
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12 560 advice or tools that prove useful for those ‘on the ground’ (Dickinson, 2014). We would argue
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14 561 that the lifecycle model presented here can serve as an actionable framework to guide the
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16 562 process of planning and implementing collaborations. Our use of this model to inform the
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18 563 thinking in our realist synthesis of collaborating in healthcare is evidence of this - aimed at
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20 564 providing actionable evidence for policymakers and practitioners alike (XXXX). This will
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22 565 incorporate the present findings as a framework for ‘when’ it is best for certain behaviours to
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24 566 occur in the collaboration process (XXX).
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30 567 **Conclusion**

31 568 A systematic review and seven-step ‘best fit’ framework synthesis methodology was used to
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33 569 identify papers in the literature regarding inter-organizational collaborations in healthcare.
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35 570 These included papers were then scanned for relevant models of the process of collaborations
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37 571 as well as behaviours important to various stages. Fourteen models were identified from
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39 572 twenty-six included papers. Within these papers, five further sets of descriptions of behaviours
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41 573 that were considered key to planning or implementing collaborations were identified. Models
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43 574 were found to fall into sequential or life cycle style designs and typically lacked
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45 575 “contemplative” or “dissolution” type stages. A novel ‘composite model’ was formulated using
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47 576 a thematic analysis approach. We adopted the relatively simple model by Childs & Dobbins
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49 577 (2003) as an a priori framework and we coded stages and behaviours from other models against
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51 578 this a priori framework to form a novel model. The completed novel composite model
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53 579 incorporated a life cycle design over five stages: Contemplating, Connecting, Planning,
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55 580 Implementation, and Maintenance or Dissolution. The model suggests that learnings from
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3 581 completed collaborations can be recycled for use in future collaborations, and we propose that
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5 582 the model can be entered into and exited at various stages as well depending on the
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8 583 circumstances. In line with a 'weak' process view, each stage should be considered a phase in
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10 584 which certain behaviours should occur more than others, and not that outlined behaviours can
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12 585 only occur in certain stages. Our model is intended to be useful as an evaluative tool for those
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14 586 implementing collaborations and partnerships, as well as for analysts of such arrangements.

17 587 *Author contributions*

18 588 XXX designed the study, conducted the searches, data extraction, best fit synthesis, and wrote
19
20
21 589 the manuscript. XY acted as independent reviewer, provided expertise on the topic, and edited
22
23
24 590 the manuscript. XZ provided expertise on the methodology and edited the manuscript. All
25
26 591 authors approved the final version of the paper.

28 592 *Conflict of interest*

29
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37 596 of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the XXXX program.

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